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경영학석사학위논문

I Have a Voice: Employee Voice under Abusive Supervisors

상사의 비인격적 행동이
구성원의 제언행동에 미치는 영향

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서울대학교 대학원
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I Have a Voice: Employee Voice under Abusive Supervisors

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이 논문을 경영학석사학위논문으로 제출함

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Abstract

I Have a Voice: Employee Voice under Abusive Supervisors

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Given the significance of organizational effectiveness and efficiency in today's hypercompetitive business environment, problem solving skills have been required for organizations to survive. However, there are organizational problems those cannot be figured out from the top management, but rank-and-file employees are much aware of certain issues. Consequently, employees are expected to be more proactive and speak up in their work. Recognizing the importance of employees' voice, the purpose of this study is to examine a comprehensive model of employee voice behavior in organizations. First of all, the current research investigates how a leader's abusive behavior may impact followers' voice behaviors.

Secondly, this study demonstrates mediating mechanisms of employees' psychological factors between leader's abusive supervision and employee voice behavior. Third, this paper examines the influence of situational condition by exploring the moderating effects of the situational context, which may mitigate the negative effects of abusive supervision. Organizational support is inspected as a critical boundary factor in two relationships – one between abusive supervision and psychological safety, and another one between abusive supervision and organization-based self-esteem.

By analyzing 209 data samples using questionnaires distributed to employees and their immediate supervisors from various companies located in South Korea, this study discovered that abusive supervision was negatively related to employee voice behavior. Furthermore, abusive supervision was also negatively related with both psychological safety and organization-based self-esteem. The negative relationship between abusive supervision and voice behavior was partially mediated by psychological safety and organization-based self-esteem. However, contrary to the hypotheses, moderating effects of organizational support were not supported. Specifically, the negative relationship between abusive supervision and employee voice behavior was strengthened when organizational support is high rather than when it is low.

Despite of its limitations such as a cross-sectional design and a potential risk of common method bias, this study enriches our

understanding of the mechanism of abusive supervision on employee voice behavior through psychological safety and organization-based self-esteem. By applying theoretical perspectives, the current study examined psychological mechanisms through which abusive supervision leads to negative outcomes on employee voice behavior. The results demonstrate that leadership influence and underlying psychological mechanisms of employees are all significant on employees' decision to speak up. Moreover, organizational support could be effective to reduce the negative effect of abusive supervision on psychological safety when the level of abusive supervision is low. Therefore, recognizing abusive supervision as a strong external cue, identifying factors that contribute to abusive leader behaviors and monitoring occurrences of abusive supervision are both important in order to encourage and motivate employee voice behavior.

Keywords: Voice behavior, Abusive supervision, Psychological safety, Organization-based self-efficacy (OBSE), Organizational support.

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I. INTRODUCTION

In today's hypercompetitive business environment, rapid innovation and problem solving skills have been required for organizations to survive (Zhang & Bartol, 2010). Organizations inexorably demand employees' suggestions to boost organizational effectiveness and efficiency. There are problems those cannot be figured out from the top management, but employees are more aware of certain issues (Morrison & Milliken, 2000; Senge, 1990). Recognizing the significance, more organizations started to have higher employee performance standards, and consequently, focal employees are expected to be creative and proactive in their work (Frese & Fay, 2001; Crant, 2000). However, majority of workers report that workplace atmosphere or managers do not encourage intercommunication (Beer & Nohria, 2000). This exhibits the tendency of employees' uncomfortableness and no confidence in supervisors. Therefore, it is crucial to explore under what circumstances individuals feel hard to perform such challenging tasks. Additionally, it is necessary to investigate mechanisms through and the context in which supervisors negatively influence follower behaviors.

Van Dyne and LePine (1998) defined voice behavior as "making innovative suggestions for change and recommending modifications to

standard procedures even when others disagree” (p. 109). Compared with other employee behaviors, voice is the most constructive action since it struggles for improvement in the current status (Hsiung, 2012). Employees often wait and see if their working situation is adequate for speaking up, and they use this cue to guide their behaviors (Dutton, Ashford, Lawrence, & Miner-Rubino, 2002; Dutton, Ashford, O’Neill, Hayes, & Wierba, 1997). Among different cues regarding the context, supervisory behavior has been emphasized as a key source of signal about whether it is justifiable and worthy to voice (Edmondson, 2003). It is because workplace supervisors are responsible for important roles in the organization (Carroll & Gillen, 1987; Dierdorff, Rubin, & Morgeson, 2009), and they are capable of creating the organizational atmosphere. Supervisors not only foster engagement but also exert influence over focal employees by a legitimate authority within the organization (French, Raven, & Cartwright, 1959). With its growing interest and importance among researchers, supervisor behaviors and management styles have been emphasized as one of the most necessary sources of signals about whether it is justifiable and worthy to voice (Morrison, 2011; Edmondson, 2003). Moreover, leaders often become the target of voice. At the same time, they are very influential in workplaces since they are the ones who execute job assessments and evaluate performance (Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006). For these reasons, a number of past scholars emphasized the relationship between managerial

behaviors, especially leadership styles, and employee voice behavior (e.g., Detert & Burris, 2007; Edmondson, 2003; Liu, Zhu, & Yang, 2010; Tangirala & Ramanujam, 2010; Morrison & Phelps, 1999).

Accumulating literature evidence primarily focused on investigating relationships of the positive aspects of leadership and employees' voice behavior, for instance, the effects of transformational leadership (Detert & Burris, 2007; Liu et al., 2010) and authentic leadership (Hsuing, 2012) on employee voice. However, negative supervisory behaviors have rarely been explored as an antecedent of it. Exceptionally, there was a research by Burris, Detert, and Chiaburu (2008), which examined that the negative relationship between abusive supervision and voice behavior is mediated by psychological attachment. Recently, another study by Frazier and Bowler (2015) suggested that supervisor undermining is negatively related to voice climate, which will consequently result in decrease of group voice behavior and group performance. Still, compared to other leadership research, there is a lack of theoretical and empirical evidence in this field, and more studies are needed to investigate key factors which can buffer this negative effect of hostile behaviors of leaders on employees' speaking up in the organization. Recognizing the importance of negative managerial behaviors on voice behavior, this article extends previous research and reaches beyond by considering situational contexts that may encourage

employee voice by investigating the relationship between abusive supervision and voice behavior.

In addition to examining the extent to which abusive supervision influences upon employee voice behaviors, the present model also provides a theoretical framework to better understand the effects of abusive supervision on employee voice beyond the mediating mechanisms of psychological safety and organization-based self-esteem. Detert and Burris (2007) have already examined that psychological safety is a belief that mediates the relationship between the external stimuli provided by leader behaviors and decision by subordinates to speak up or remain silent. According to the recent study done by Morrison (2011), there are two significant considerations of employees have when it comes to speaking up in the organization. They are perceived safety of voice and perceived capability to voice. Mainly based on this point of view, this study suggests two individual psychological paths – psychological safety and organization-based self-esteem – which mediate the negative relationship between abusive supervision and voice behavior.

Furthermore, the present study examines how organizational support can serve as a buffer for mitigating the negative effects of abusive supervision on psychological safety and organization-based self-esteem. Particularly, I propose that employees' perception of organizational support

will moderate the level of abusive supervision on psychological safety perception and also on one's organization-based self-esteem. A recent study done by Kim, Kim, and Yun (2015) suggested that high organizational support can actually reduce the destructive impact of abusive supervisory behaviors on knowledge sharing. Furthermore, substitutes for leadership theory (Kerr & Jermier, 1978) states that there are situational factors which can enhance, neutralize, or substitute for leader behaviors. On the basis of this, I suggest that organizational support will interact with abusive supervision and have impact on the level of psychological safety and organization-based self-esteem.

To summarize, this research aims to extend our understanding of voice behavior in several significant ways. First, drawing on insights from theoretical perspectives, the present study examines the main effect of abusive supervision on employee voice behavior. Furthermore, this research reaches beyond the simple main effect relationship, by proposing plausible mediators, which are psychological safety and organization-based self-esteem. Moreover, by offering different sources of support from exchange partners in the organization, this study explores an organizational factor as a moderator that could buffer the negative effect of abusive supervision on employee voice behaviors. Specifically, organizational support is investigated as a moderating variable, which could mitigate the

negative impact of destructive supervisory behaviors. Lastly, by further understanding the interaction effects of two mediators – psychological safety and organization-based self-esteem, this research demonstrates the dynamics of interaction among psychological factors which are considered as significant factors when predicting individuals' voice behaviors.

II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

1. Voice Behavior

The term voice originated from Hirschman's (1970) Exit-Voice-Loyalty model, which was developed from an economic viewpoint and related customers rather than employees. Hirschman (1970) stated that voice is a "messy" construct that ranges from "grumbling" to "protest" (p. 16). Until the early half of 1990s, most studies were based on Hirschman's (1970) model of voice for expressing work-related dissatisfaction for employees (e.g., Withey & Cooper, 1989; Farrell & Rusbult, 1992). However, studies conducted in this period had conflicting results, so later studies started to suggest more specific definitions of voice (Morrison, 2011). Building from a number of past definitions in the literature, Morrison (2011) offered the following conceptualization of voice: "discretionary communication of ideas, suggestions, concerns, or opinions about work-related issues with the intent to improve organizational or unit functioning (p.375)." This integrated definition of voice behavior comprises both voice that is directed to one's particular supervisor, as well as voice directed to one of or several of the team members. Table 1 shows the development of definitions of voice behavior.

Table 1. Definitions of Voice Behavior

Study	Definition
Hirschman (1970)	Any attempt at all to change, rather than to escape from, an objectionable state of affairs. (p. 30) Voice is like exit in that it can be overdone: The discontented ... members could become so harassing that their protests would ... hinder rather than help. (p. 31)
Van Dyne & LePine (1998)	Promotive behavior that emphasizes expression of constructive challenge intended to improve rather than merely criticize. (p. 109)
LePine & Van Dyne (1998)	Non-required behavior that emphasizes expression of constructive challenge with the intent to improve rather than merely criticize. (p. 854)
LePine & Van Dyne (2001)	Voice is a constructive change-oriented communication intended to improve the situation. (p. 326)
Van Dyne, Ang, & Botero (2003)	Intentionally expressing rather than withholding relevant ideas, information, and opinions about possible work-related improvements. (p. 1360)
Premeaux & Bedeian (2003)	Openly stating one's views or opinions about workplace matters, including the actions or ideas of others, suggested or needed changes, and alternative approaches or different lines of reasoning for addressing job-related issues. (p. 1538)

Study	Definition
Detert & Burris (2007)	<p>The discretionary provision of information intended to improve organizational functioning to someone inside the organization with the perceived authority to act, even though such information may challenge and upset the status quo of the organization and its powerholders. (p. 869)</p> <p>Verbal behavior that is improvement oriented and directed to a specific target who holds power inside the organization in question. (p. 870)</p>
Tangirala & Ramanujam (2008)	Employees' expression of challenging but constructive opinions, concerns, or ideas about work-related issues. (p. 1189)
Morrison (2011)	Discretionary communication of ideas, suggestions, concerns, or opinions about work-related issues with the intent to improve organizational or unit functioning. (p. 375)
Bashshur & Oc (2015)	The discretionary or formal expression of ideas, opinions, suggestions, or alternative approaches directed to a specific target inside or outside of the organization with the intent to change an objectionable state of affairs and to improve the current functioning of the organization, group, or individual. (p. 1531)

Voice is unique compared to other related constructs for three reasons (Ng & Feldman, 2012). First of all, unlike other employee behaviors, with voice, employees can start communications with supervisor without any special process. Secondly, voice is different from civic virtue in that voice goes beyond “merely participating in organizational activities to include making one’s own opinions and ideas known by others” (p. 218). Lastly, voice is different from taking charge behavior since voice specifically focuses on the communication rather than other behaviors.

Early voice studies have focused on “promotive” aspects of voice, which is related to suggesting new ideas for improvement (e.g., Van Dyne & LePine, 1998; Van Dyne et al., 2003). Less empirical studies have been conducted to “prohibitive” aspects of voice, which is related to expressing concerns and incidents that might be harmful to the organization, until the work of Liang, Farh, and Farh (2012). This particular study adopts Liang and colleagues’ (2012) two types of voice measure. Promotive voice is related with the intent to supplement regarding supportive and challenging voices in other construct, and prohibitive voice is related with intent to remove harmful factors. Since voice behavior is a planned behavior, and one’s intention is important when speak up. Table 2 provides information about several constructs which are widely used for voice behavior.

The notion that focal employees consider the probability that voice

behavior will be effective is persistent with motivation of individuals that highlight the connection between effort and expectancy beliefs (Vroom, 1964). Expected efficacy affects the decision whether to speak up in the organization (Withey & Cooper, 1989). In addition, one's perceived efficacy is also considered as a critical factor in a model of whistle-blowing (Miceli & Near, 1992). It is not easy to determine the driving forces or underlying motives for voice, and it is also similar with silence (Van Dyne et al., 2003). Recognizing its difficulties, the previous literature mostly focused much of the empirical research on voice on identifying factors that increase or decrease employee voice behavior. Contextual factors, such as organizational structure and organizational culture (Dutton et al., 1997; 2002), have been suggested as antecedents of voice. As a result, organizations that are less bureaucratic or hierarchical provided more support for employees to speak up in the organization. Not only contextual factors, but also supervisor behaviors have been suggested a number of times as antecedents of voice behavior. It is because leaders are often the target of voice (Morrison, 2011), and also they have power over work-related outcomes. Employee voice behaviors have been related to many different leadership theories. The current study also suggests one of leader behaviors, which is hostile and destructive leader behavior, as an antecedent of voice behavior.

Table 2. Prior Voice Behavior Conceptualizations

Study	Conceptualization of Voice	Key Attributes
Van Dyne & LePine (1998)	Voice Behavior - a promotive behavior that emphasizes the expression of constructive challenge intended to improve rather than merely criticize	- Promotes improvement - Challenges the status quo - Positive intentions
Van Dyne et al. (2003)	Acquiescent voice - expressions of support and agreement	- Preserves / promotes the status quo
	Defensive voice - expressing ideas that shift attention elsewhere based on fear and proposing ideas that focus on others to protect the self	- Motivated by fear - Self-protective
	Prosocial voice - suggestions for change and recommendations for improvements	- Active - Promotes improvement - Challenges the status quo - Altruistic motive
Burris (2012)	Challenging voice - speaking up in ways intended to alter, modify, or destabilize generally accepted sets of practices, policies, or strategic directions that make up the status quo to those individuals who have devised or are in charge of sustaining those aspects of an organization	- Challenges the status quo - Decidedly proactive - More personal

Study	Conceptualization of Voice	Key Attributes
	Supportive voice - intended to stabilize or preserve existing organizational policies or practices	- Preserves / promotes the status quo
Liang, Farh, & Farh (2012)	Promotive voice - “employees’ expression of new ideas or suggestions for improving the overall functioning of their work unit or organization. . . . Such voice is ‘promotive’ in the sense that it is focused on a future ideal state.” (p. 74)	- Challenges the status quo - Promotes change
	Prohibitive voice - “employees’ expressions of concern about work practices, incidents, or employee behavior that are harmful to their organization.” (p. 75)	- Prevents harm - Preserves or challenges the status quo
Maynes & Podsakoff (2014)	Supportive voice - the voluntary expression of support for worthwhile work-related policies, programs, objectives, procedures, and so on, or speaking out in defense of these same things when they are being unfairly criticized	- Preserves / promotes the status quo
	Constructive voice - the voluntary expression of ideas, information, or opinions focused on effecting	- Promotes improvement - Challenges the status quo

Study	Conceptualization of Voice	Key Attributes
	organizationally functional change to the work context	- Altruistic motive
	Defensive voice - the voluntary expression of opposition to changing an organization's policies, procedures, programs, and practices, even when the proposed changes have merit or making changes is necessary	- Motivated by fear - Self-protective
	Destructive voice - the voluntary expression of hurtful, critical, or debasing opinions regarding work policies, practices, procedures, etc.	- Oriented toward doing harm - Challenges the status quo

Referred to Maynes & Podsakoff (2013)

In the last two decades, scholars have witnessed a growing research interest in employee voice behavior (Budd, Gollan, & Wilkinson, 2010; Duan, Kwan, & Ling, 2014). However, still not much literature in South Korea deals with employee voice. Encouraging voice is particularly important, and it is especially in need in Korean setting. Compared to Western societies, Korean employees hesitate to speak up for the organization. It is because they tend to focus on acting according to socially

desirable roles and conforming to those expectations (Shin & Zhou, 2003). Additionally, keeping good relationships with supervisors and coworkers in the workplace is considered as a critical part of work life (Cha, 1994). Therefore, Korean employees seem to lose independent selves compared to western society employees.

Moreover, Zhang, Zhou, Wang, and Cone (2011) asserted that if employees are likely to have high levels of power distance orientation, this would lead employees to less motivated to voice. Additionally, given a high power distance culture of South Korea (Hofstede, 1980), the impact of leaders is bigger than that of coworkers. In this point of view, it is necessary to find out what kind of supervisory behaviors are critical to promote employee voice in Korean culture.

2. Abusive Supervision

Within the past 25 years, researchers have started to pay attention to the dark side of leader behaviors such as sexual harassment, physical violence, and nonphysical hostility (Tepper, 2007). In previous studies, there were several different labels which referred to these kind of destructive supervisor behaviors including petty tyranny (Ashforth, 1997), supervisor undermining (Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon, 2002), and supervisor

aggression (Schat, Desmarais, & Kelloway, 2006). However, most of the academic work conducted to date has applied the term abusive supervision (Tepper, 2000). Table 3 shows several constructs of supervisor hostility with different labels.

Table 3. Constructs of Supervisor Hostility

Construct	Definition
Abusive supervision	“Subordinates’ perceptions of the extent to which their supervisors engage in the sustained display of hostile verbal and non-verbal behaviors, excluding physical contact” (Tepper, 2000, p. 178).
Generalized hierarchical abuse	Exposure to hostility perpetrated by hierarchically superior coworkers (Rospenda, 2002).
Petty tyranny	Managers’ use of power and authority oppressively, capriciously, and vindictively (Ashforth, 1987, 1994, 1997).
Victimization	“The individual’s self-perception of having been exposed, either momentarily or repeatedly, to aggressive actions emanating from one or more other persons” (Aquino, 2000, p. 172).
Workplace bullying	Occurs when “one or several individuals over a period of time perceive themselves to be on the receiving end of

Construct	Definition
	negative actions from one or several persons, in a situation where the target of bullying has difficulty in defending him or herself against these actions” (Hoel & Cooper, 2001, p. 4).
Supervisor aggression	Supervisor behavior “that is intended to physically or psychologically harm a worker or workers in a work-related context” (Schat et al., 2006).
Supervisor undermining	Supervisor “behavior intended to hinder, over time, the ability to establish and maintain positive interpersonal relationships, workrelated success, and favorable reputation” (Duffy et al., 2002, p. 332).
Negative mentoring experiences	“Specific incidents that occur between mentors and protégés or mentors’ characteristics that limit their ability to effectively provide guidance to protégés” (Eby, McManus, Simon, & Russell, 2000, p. 3).

Referred to Tepper (2007)

Tepper (2000) defined abusive supervision as “subordinates’ perceptions of the extent to which supervisors engage in the sustained display of hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviors, excluding physical

contact” (p. 178). *Tepper (2000)* established this perception of abusive supervision as a source of supervisory justice violation.

Abusive supervision is low base-rate phenomenon in organizations, but researchers have paid a great interest within the past 20 years. Abundant past studies have noted that abusive supervision does not occur commonly, but its hidden costs to the organization are pernicious (e.g., *Schat, Frone, & Kelloway, 2006; Aryee, Chen, Sun, & Debrah, 2007; Tepper, Moss, Lockhart, & Carr, 2007; Harris, Kacmar, & Zivnuska, 2007*). As workplace supervisors have unique roles and responsibilities in the organization (*Carroll & Gillen, 1987; Dierdorff et al., 2009*), abusive supervision is likely to bring both negative attitudes and behaviors (*Tepper, 2000*). For example, for attitudes, abusive supervision is linked to decreased level of job satisfaction (*Tepper, 2000; Tepper, Duffy, Hoobler, & Ensley, 2004*), low self-efficacy (*Duffy et al., 2002*) and poor organizational commitment (*Duffy et al., 2002; Tepper, 2000*). Furthermore, abusive supervision is negatively related to various emotional and psychological outcomes such as emotional exhaustion (*Grandey, Kern, & Frone, 2007*), psychological distress (*Tepper, 2000*), and other negative affectivities (*Hoobler & Hu, 2013; Martinko, Harvey, Brees, & Mackey, 2013; Chan & McAllister, 2014*). Extant research has found that abusive supervision is connected with detrimental employee behaviors such as workplace deviance (*Mitchell,*

Ambrose, 2007; Duffy et al., 2002), and decreased level of performances – both job performance (Harris et al., 2007) and organizational citizenship behaviors (Zellars, Tepper, & Duffy, 2002).

3. Mechanisms of Abusive Supervision on Employee Voice

3.1 Psychological Safety

Early conceptualizations of psychological safety were based on the classic study of organizational change by Schein and Bennis (1965). Schein and Bennis (1965) pointed out the need to create psychological safety for individuals if they are to feel safe and able to change their behaviors. In more recent studies, psychological safety refers to individuals' perceptions about the consequences of interpersonal risks in the work environment (Edmondson, Kramer, & Cook, 2004; Edmondson, 1999). Kahn (1990) stated this psychological safety will affect individuals' willingness to "express themselves physically, cognitively and emotionally during role performances", instead of defending "their personal selves" (cited by Edmonson & Lei, 2014; Edmondson, 1999). According to Kahn (1990), it is "an individual's feeling able to show and employ his or herself without fear of negative consequences to self-image, status, or career" (p. 708). That is to say, the point of psychological safety lies in feeling comfortable

with confessing one's weaknesses or displaying personal ideas and thoughts in the workplace.

Psychological safety research has been categorized in three levels of research: individual, group, and organizational levels. For this particular work, since it deals with relationships between individuals, individual-level research would be most adequate. In regard to antecedents of psychological safety, a recent meta-research done by Edmondson and Lei (2014) suggests that Edmondson and Mogelof (2006) divided antecedents of psychological safety at three levels of analysis: organizational resources, team member and leader interactions, team goal clarity, and personality differences. They found that psychological safety was significantly different across teams within the same organization, and also differed across organizations. For other antecedents, usually it was widely focused on the relationship with leaders (Edmondson, 1999; Nembhard & Edmondson, 2006). Also, mutual trust between a leader and an employee has positive impact on psychological safety (Schaubroeck, Lam, & Peng, 2011; Edmondson et al., 2004).

Moreover, for consequences of psychological safety, previous studies have found that it is positively related to learning behaviors and practices in teams (e.g., Tucker, Nembhard, & Edmondson, 2007; Choo, Linderman, & Schroeder, 2007). Additionally, creativity, engagement in

quality improvement work, and employee voice were also figured out to be consequences of psychological safety (e.g., Kark & Carmeli, 2009; Nembhard & Edmondson, 2006; Detert & Burris, 2007). Not only as antecedent and as consequence, psychological safety has frequently been conceptualized but also as a mediator and as a moderator. Recently, it is often emphasized as an enhancing factor (Bradley, Postlethwaite, Klotz, Hamdani, & Brown, 2012).

As leader behaviors are suggested to contribute to the feelings of psychological safety (Nembhard & Edmondson, 2006), this specific research propose psychological safety as a mediator of the relationship between negative leader behavior and employee voice behavior. Supervisors can encourage focal employees to bring up new ideas and take risks by communicating the importance of such behaviors and assuring followers that negative consequences will not result from such behavior. However, in a similar vein, destructive leader behaviors would influence followers in the opposite way.

3.2 Organization-Based Self-Efficacy (OBSE)

Self-esteem is an important individual factor when predicting employee attitudes and behaviors (Judge & Bono, 2001; Brockner, 1988;

Pierce & Gardner, 2004). Earlier studies mostly have explored general self-esteem, which indicates an individual's overall belief about one's self-worth and competence (Bowling, Eschleman, Wang, Kirkendall, & Alarcon, 2010). However, some of academic scholars maintained that individuals play a number of roles in this society, and each role is very different from each other. For instance, one may feel competent as a father, but feel less valued as an employee in the workplace. Therefore, people argued that self-esteem should also be more specific regarding roles played in the society (Korman, 1970; Simpson & Boyle, 1975). Considering this, Pierce, Gardner, Cummings, and Dunham (1989) first introduced the concept of organization-based self-esteem (OBSE). It differs from general self-esteem in that it refers to one's belief about his or her self-evaluation and competence as an organizational member. It is one of many situation-specific sub-dimensions (Korman, 1970).

This research focuses on organization-based self-esteem, rather than other forms of self-esteem. It is because the principle of compatibility maintains that attitudes are more likely to be more closely related to other behavioral variables of interest when they are framed at a level similar to that of other variables (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977). According to Pierce and colleagues (1989), "more self-esteem is framed in the context consistent with the behavior or attitude to be predicted, the higher will be the observed

correlation between the two variables (p. 623-624).” Specifically, task-related self-esteem will predict task-related attitudes and behaviors more strongly than will global self-esteem. In this point of view, since organization-based self-esteem reflects employees’ evaluation of their personal worthiness as organizational members, it would be an adequate potential mediator when predicting employee behaviors. Individuals with high organization-based self-esteem perceive themselves as important, meaningful, and worthwhile within their employing organization. Therefore, the organization means much to them because it is the vital component of their self-worth and identity (Van Dyne et al., 2003).

III. HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

1. Employee Voice and Abusive Supervision

The field of organizational behavior has witnessed a growing interest in explaining factors that promote employee voice – the expression of constructive opinions, concerns, or ideas recommending modifications to standard procedures in the work environment (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998; Van Dyne et al., 2003). Considering the powerful position of leaders in workplaces (Redmond, Mumford, & Teach, 1993), abusive supervision may play a significant role in determining the level of employee voice behavior.

Abusive supervision is low base-rate phenomenon in organizations, but it is emphasized to explore the extension of negative outcomes of abusive supervision in previous studies (Tepper, 2000; Zellars et al., 2002). Tepper (2000) formally defined abusive supervision as “subordinates’ perceptions of the extent to which supervisors engage in the sustained display of hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviors, excluding physical contact” (p. 178). Such destructive behaviors include public criticism, angry tantrums, ridiculing, and undermining toward subordinated. Numerous past researchers have indicated that abusive supervision does

not occur commonly, but its hidden costs to the organization are pernicious (e.g., Schat et al., 2006; Aryee et al., 2007; Tepper et al., 2007; Harris et al., 2007). For instance, abusive supervision is likely to have a relationship with emotional exhaustion, distrust, and anxiety, while it decreases intrinsic motivation (e.g., Hoobler & Hu, 2013; Martinko et al., 2013; Chan & McAllister, 2014). I expect that such form of supervision would be a critical workplace stressor which exerts detrimental psychological influence (Whitman, Halbesleben, & Holmes, 2014; Chi & Liang, 2013). Recognizing its strong stressful condition of abusive supervision, it may play a critical role in determining employee voice behavior according to several theoretical perspectives.

Social exchange theory (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005) is based on the norm of reciprocity, and it is usually in terms of positive reciprocity – when one behaves nicely toward another, it requires the return of favorable treatment (Gouldner, 1960). However, there also exists negative reciprocity, where hostile action is repaid with unfavorable treatment (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). When subordinates are abused by leaders, they cannot expect any trust or support from their supervisors (Tepper, 2000). Although voice has frequently being investigated as a way for employees to reciprocate to their employers for the positive treatment they receive, employees would not speak up for the organization when they

exposed to abusive supervision. Additionally, since leaders are considered as agents for the larger organization (Levinson, 1965), the negative feelings toward the supervisor will affect feelings for the organization as a whole, making employees not to engage in voice which would improve organizational functioning.

Conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989) suggests that individuals have limited personal resources (e.g., physical energy, emotional energy). Further, individuals make efforts to protect their own limited resources especially when they are confronted by stressors. Abusive supervision is a strong stressful situation dealt with an employee (Tepper, 2007). According to conservation of resources theory, in order to preserve limited resources and mitigate their psychological discomfort, individuals try to adopt passive coping strategy (Tepper et al., 2007). Additionally, the theory consists of both a “resource conservation” presumption and a “resource accumulation” presumption, but according to Ng and Feldman’s (2012) research, “resource conservation” presumption better explains framework for understanding voice behavior under stressful situation. From the perspective of resource theory, speaking up is usually regarded as risky and costly since it requires extra energy and effort (Bolino & Turnley, 2005; Detert & Edmondson, 2011). Therefore, it is unlikely that employees who experience supervisors’ abusive behaviors will exercise voice

behaviors because speaking up consumes resources in their reservoirs. Following these lines of argument, I expect the following:

Hypothesis 1. Abusive supervision is negatively related to employee voice behavior.

2. The Mediating Effects of Psychological Safety and Organization-Based Self-Esteem

A critical issue related to voice behavior is that why employees do or do not speak up for their organizational concerns or ideas. Unlike other work behaviors, voice is extraordinary in that it is not only discretionary and proactive, but also inherently challenging (Van Dyne, Cummings, & McLean Parks, 1995). The content of voice behavior is fairly broad. Some examples include a strategic issue of promotion opportunities (Dutton & Ashford, 1993), a way to improve work-related problems (Milliken, Morrison, & Hewlin, 2003), a situation of unfairness or other undesirable social consequences (Pinder & Harlos, 2001; Morrison & Milliken, 2000). For the reason that voice behavior holds both potential benefits and risks, a number of employees choose to speak up after comparing potential costs and benefits (Milliken et al., 2003; Kish-Gephart, Detert, Treviño, & Edmondson, 2009).

Early researchers have generally focused on a supervisor-centered perspective to explain supervisory behaviors on employees by examining how leadership styles and behaviors influence perceptions of followers toward leaders (e.g., trust in supervisor, identification with the leader; Jung & Avolio, 2000; Kark, Shamir, & Chen, 2003), jobs (e.g., job characteristics; Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006), and organizations (e.g., organizational justice; Pillai, Scandura, & Williams, 1999; Ehrhart, 2004). These are typical mediators in most leadership literature to elucidate the impact of leadership on employee work behaviors. However, recently, more and more of studies try to see these issues in a subordinate-centered perspective. A subordinate-centered perspective emphasizes how supervisory behaviors shape the construction of self-evaluation of subordinates (Chan, Huang, Snape, & Lam, 2013). This viewpoint is necessary to understanding the impact of leadership on employees because self-perceived value is the main motivational mechanism driving employees to act and perform (Bono & Judge, 2003). On the basis of this, I also focused on a subordinate-centered perspective.

According to one study by Morrison (2011), there are two significant considerations of employees have been emphasized in particular. The first is the perceived safety of voice, which is “the individual’s judgment about the risks or potential negative outcomes associated with speaking up” (p. 382).

The second is the perceived capability to voice, which indicates “the individual’s judgment about whether speaking up is likely to be effective” (p. 382). From this point of view, I suggest two psychological paths – psychological safety and organization-based self-esteem – which mediate the negative relationship between abusive supervision and voice behavior.

2.1 Psychological Safety

Psychological safety is defined as individuals’ perceptions about the consequences of interpersonal risks in the work environment (Edmondson et al., 2004; Edmondson, 1999). The work environment characterized by psychological safety is important for individuals to feel safe and therefore able to change their behaviors (Schein & Bennis, 1965). A number of previous studies suggest that leader behaviors are significantly related to psychological safety (Nembhard & Edmondson, 2006). The focal employees are specifically concerned about supervisory behaviors as well as their response to them since leaders have a unique role in the workplace (Tyler & Lind, 1992; Carroll & Gillen, 1987; Dierdorff et al., 2009). Therefore, leadership behaviors are critical in that it will affect directly employees’ perceptions of safety. Previous research also pointed out that leader behaviors, such as inclusive leadership, have a positive effect on psychological safety (Carmeli, Reiter-Palmon, & Ziv, 2010; Nembhard &

Edmondson, 2006). Abusive supervision, as one kind of destructive leader behaviors, could easily destroy the relationship between a supervisor and a subordinate. One of prior studies suggested that abusive supervision has a positive effect on psychological distress, which results in low psychological safety (Restubog, Scott, & Zagenczyk, 2011).

Hypothesis 2. Abusive supervision is negatively related to psychological safety perceptions of employees.

Psychological safety not only makes workplaces comfortable and cozy, but also develops a climate in which the focus of discussion towards the prevention of problems or the attainment of specific mutual goals (Edmondson et al., 2004). In a safe environment, people are willing to seek help, tolerate error, propose new problems, and report problems in teams (Edmondson, 1999). This is because people who feel psychologically safe in the environment are less likely to focus on self-protection, but rather pay attention to shared attributes. When focal employees perceive that psychological safety is high in organizations, they would consider the climate within the organization safe and favorable of speaking up or accepting errors, so consequently, they would engage in voice behaviors (Edmondson, 1999; Edmondson et al., 2004). Several previous studies have also explained that psychological safety mediates between the antecedent variable and employee voice behaviors (e.g., Detert & Burris, 2007;

Ashford, Rothbard, Piderit, & Dutton, 1998).

On the contrary, when focal employees perceive that psychological safety is low in organizations, they become intimidated and terrified of making suggestions (Zhao & Olivera, 2006). When psychological atmosphere is unsafe in the organization, employees will worry more about facing various risk consequences including interpersonal issues (West & Anderson, 1996; Edmondson, 1999). Therefore, focal employees would avoid expressing their concerns and opinions publicly in a psychologically unsafe environment. Recognizing these reasons, abused employees, who have experienced a strong stressful situation with psychological discomfort, would not be willing to speak up in workplaces. If employees perceive that they are receiving hostile treatment from supervisors, they would not put more time and effort nor participate in organizational affairs to contribute. If abusive supervision is negatively related with psychological safety, and the level of an employee's perception of psychological safety impacts employee voice behavior, this suggests that psychological safety functions as a mediator. Thus, I propose:

Hypothesis 3. Psychological safety mediates the relationship between abusive supervision and employee voice behavior.

2.2 Organization-Based Self-Esteem

Organization-based self-esteem is defined as “the perceived self-value that individuals have of themselves as organizational members acting within an organizational context” (Pierce et al., 1989, p. 625). Cooley (1902) investigated that a person’s self-view is significantly contingent on how they believe they are perceived by others. Brockner (1988) suggested that employees’ self-esteem is particularly sensitive to treatment received from supervisors. It is because workplace supervisors play an important role controlling and distributing many organizational resources (e.g., feedback, promotions, bonuses). A number of empirical studies proved that agreeable leader behaviors – for instance, managerial respect (Pierce et al., 1989), and charismatic leadership (Kark et al., 2003) – are related positively to employees’ organization-based self-esteem. In contrast, hostile leader treatment reflected in abusive supervision is likely to reduce employees’ organization-based self-esteem. Similarly, exchange relationships satisfies a person’s social or psychological need. Moreover, interactions with a significant other (i.e., a supervisor) may affect an employee’s self-evaluation. However, abusive supervisors do not share positive exchanges nor positive interactions between each other. Substantial prior evidence has suggested that destructive leader behaviors towards employees and poor exchange relationships lower members’ self-esteem (Vogel, Mitchell,

Tepper, Restubog, Hu, Hua, & Huang, 2015; Farh & Chen, 2014; Ferris, Spence, Brown, & Heller, 2012; Rafferty & Restubog, 2011; Burton & Hoobler, 2006). Given the significance of interactions with supervisors for employees' self-value (Brockner, 1988), I therefore expect:

Hypothesis 4. Abusive supervision is negatively related to employee organization-based self-esteem.

On the basis of self-concept-based theory (Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993), self-esteem is based on “the sense of competence, power, achievement, or ability to cope with and control one’s environment” (p. 580). Organization-based self-esteem plays a consequential role in making employees to motivate and to engage in positive work-related behaviors and attitudes (Pierce & Gardner, 2004). For example, organization-based self-esteem is positively related to increased engagement in citizenship behaviors (Pierce et al., 1989), job performance (Judge & Bono, 2001), and job satisfaction (Pierce et al., 1989; Judge & Bono, 2001). Employees with high levels of organization-based self-esteem would perceive that they are meaningful and valuable, so that they are competent enough for commitment to the organization. On the flip side, employees with lower levels of organization-based self-esteem would abstain from devoting to organizations since they would perceive that they are not proficient enough. Considering that individuals act in ways that are coherent with their self-

views (Korman, 1970), employees with higher organization-based self-esteem are more likely to contribute and to influence the group in positive ways. Previous empirical research has also shown positive impacts of employees' organization-based self-esteem on citizenship behaviors (Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004) and on voice behaviors (Liang, Farh, & Farh, 2012). In line with theorizing, I thus predict that organization-based self-esteem is the mediating process linking abusive supervision and employee voice behavior.

Hypothesis 5. Organization-based self-esteem mediates the relationship between abusive supervision and employee voice behavior.

3. The Moderating Effects of Organizational Support

Even though supervisors play a significant role in the workplace, they are not the only exchange partners in the organization (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008; Kim et al., 2015). As a matter of fact, employees are engaged in multiple social exchange relationships not only with individuals, but also with the organization (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986; Liden, Sparrowe, & Wayne, 1997; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997; Masterson, Lewis, Goldman,

& Taylor, 2000). According to the multifoci approach, individuals have different perceptions toward key actors within the organization, and act variously in response to their perceptions (Lavelle, Rupp, & Brockner, 2007). Employees often interact and exchange their resources with their organizations (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Masterson et al., 2000). A number of prior studies viewed the organization as an “innocent bystander” of employees’ aggression and damaged self-regulation from abusive supervision (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007; Thau & Mitchell, 2010). Substitutes for leadership theory (Kerr & Jermier, 1978) states that there are situational factors which can enhance, neutralize, or substitute for leader behaviors.

Moreover, Duffy and colleagues (2002) emphasized that the cross-domain effect of supports, for example, the support from one source may buffer the negative effects of another source. In this perspective, I expect that individuals who feel they are supported by their organizations are less likely to be affected by the negative effect of abusive supervision. A recent study done by Kim and colleagues (2015) suggested that high organizational support can actually reduce the destructive impact of abusive supervisory behaviors on knowledge sharing. For these reasons, I suggest that employees’ perceived organizational support will interact with abusive supervision, and have impact on the level of psychological safety

and organization-based self-esteem.

Employees under abusive supervisors do not perceive that they are receiving enough support from their supervisors (Tepper, 2000). However, if they feel a high level of perceived organizational support, they are likely to appreciate the attachment toward their organizations (Eisenberger et al., 1986). According to organizational support theory (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Shore & Shore, 1995), employees develop a general belief regarding the extent to which the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). These beliefs, which are labeled as perceived organizational support, depend on the attributions of employees concerning the organization's favorable or unfavorable treatment to them. Therefore, employees develop positive or negative perceptions toward organizations (Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski, & Rhoades, 2002). When employees believe that they received enough resources, such as fairness or job conditions, they will perceive high organizational support (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

This paper maintains that organizational support is a fundamental component in determining the impact of hostile leader behaviors on employees' psychological safety and organization-based self-esteem. Evidence for moderating effects of organizational support can also be found in the previous literature, especially in the relationship between

stressors and personal- or work-related outcomes. For instance, Bradley and Cartwright (2002) found that organizational support moderated the relationship between job stress and health. Additionally, Stamper and Johlke (2003) investigated two negative relationships – one between role ambiguity and job satisfaction, and another one between role conflict and intention to stay – were attenuated by the effect of organizational support.

A multifoci perspective of social exchange suggests that if an employee perceives one source of support positively, and it may reduce the effects of a negative supervisor's behavior (i.e., abusive supervision). Although employees under abusive supervision may not expect to receive positive treatments or support from their supervisor (Tepper, 2000), they are likely to feel obligations toward their organization, and therefore try to conserve safety and self-esteem levels when they feel high organizational support. This belief includes focal employees' perceptions of the inducements (e.g., rewards, recognition). When employees perceive that the organization is sincere enough with rewards, job conditions, and other cares, they would still feel increased safety and self-esteem, which may have been otherwise lowered by abusive supervision. In this context, levels of employees' psychological safety and organization-based self-esteem would be less likely to be harmed even when their supervisors exhibit abusive supervision. On the other hand, if employees feel that organizational

support is too low, this would increase the negative feelings both towards their supervisors and towards the organization that have been already depreciated by abusive supervision.

In addition to the social exchange theory, affective events theory may offer some insights how organizational support may buffer negative effects of abusive supervision on outcomes. Affective events theory posits that a positive event causes positive emotional reactions; while a negative event causes negative emotional reactions (Morrison & Robinson, 1997). A meta-analysis by Zhao, Wayne, Glibkowski, and Bravo (2007) has demonstrated the relationship between psychological contract and attitudes applying affective events theory. This meta-research investigated that when organizations break psychological contracts, which is closely related to organizational support, employees may perceive low commitment and trust in organization since psychological contract breach is perceived as a negative event. From this respect, the negative effects of abusive supervision both on psychological safety and on organization-based self-esteem are likely to be attenuated in the context of high organizational support since employees may perceive high level of organizational support as a positive event. Thus, I suggest the following:

Hypothesis 6a. Organizational support moderates the relationship between abusive supervision and psychological safety. When organizational support is high, the negative relationship between

abusive supervision and psychological safety is likely to be attenuated.

Hypothesis 6b. Organizational support moderates the relationship between abusive supervision and organization-based self-esteem. When organizational support is high, the negative relationship between abusive supervision and organization-based self-esteem is likely to be attenuated.

Figure 1. Hypothesized Research Model



IV. METHOD

1. Sample and Procedures

This study was conducted in large companies and research centers located in South Korea. The industry field of firms are mainly represented by IT services, engineering, construction, and financial service companies. Separate sealed questionnaire packets were prepared for full-time employees and their direct managers who are in the position of the head of a group or a team: the one who subordinates perceive him or her as their leader. These survey packages were distributed to 225 subordinate-supervisor dyads. Each packet included one managerial survey and one employee survey, together with reply envelopes. These were delivered by participants after completing the questionnaires.

From 225 subordinate-supervisor dyadic samples, 213 pairs were returned, giving a response rate of 94.7%. After matching the employee survey results with that of managerial survey, a total of 209 pairs were used in the analysis of the current study. Some responses could not be used in the analyses, either because only one answered the survey between the two, or because the responses were incomplete. Of the subordinates, 61.24% were male, and the average age of subordinates was 35.39 years ($SD =$

7.04). On average, their organizational tenure was 6.27 years ($SD = 77.00$), and their tenure with their immediate supervisors was 2.31 years ($SD = 38.92$). The most frequently mentioned level of education for employees (70.33%) was a bachelor degree. The next frequently mentioned level of education for employees (22.49%) was master's degree or higher. Of the supervisors, 88.52% were male, and the average age of supervisors was 47.66 years ($SD = 7.22$). On average, their organizational tenure was 16.39 years ($SD = 117.52$).

2. Measures

All items used in the current study were originally developed in English. However, as participants' mother language is Korean, the questionnaires were all translated into Korean using conventional method of back translation (Brislin, 1980). Several bilingual (English-Korean) graduate students independently translated the measures into Korean and back translated them to ensure semantic equivalence. All the variables were measured, using established measures. The focal employees were asked to provide information on their supervisors' abusive supervision, their psychological safety, organization-based self-esteem, and organizational support. In order to reduce the concerns for common method bias, the immediate supervisors of employees were asked to offer their evaluations

of the employees' voice behaviors. All questionnaires were measured on a seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from "1 = strongly disagree" to "7 = strongly agree."

Voice Behavior. Van Dyne and LePine's (1998) six items ($\alpha = .93$) were used to measure employee voice behavior. I changed the subject from "this particular co-worker" to "this employee" since it asks supervisors to rate the level of their employees' voice behaviors. The sample items read "This employee develops and makes recommendations concerning issues that affect this work group" and "This employee speaks up and encourages others in this group to get involved in issues that affect the group."

Abusive Supervision. Tepper's (2000) 15-item measure ($\alpha = .96$) was used to ask subordinates' perceptions of abusive supervisory behaviors. The sample of abusive supervision measure delivers "My supervisor ridicules me."

Psychological Safety. Psychological safety will be assessed with a seven-item measure ($\alpha = .70$) developed by Edmondson (1999). It measures an employee's perception that his or her team would not make embarrass

of him or her, reject, nor punish just because the one spoke up. Sample items include “It was safe to take a risk on my team” and “If I made a mistake in my team, it was often held against me (Reverse).”

Organization-Based Self-Esteem. Pierce and colleagues’ (1989) 10-item measure ($\alpha = .94$) was used to assess focal employees’ perceptions of their organization-based self-esteem. Further validation evidence can be found in the review paper of the organization-based self-esteem by Pierce and Gardner (2004). This instrument asks respondents to rate the extent to which they agree or disagree with statements such as “There is faith in me around here” and “I can make a difference around here.”

Organizational Support. Organizational support was measured through the use of six items ($\alpha = .90$) from the short form of the Survey of Perceived Organizational Support (Items 1, 4, 9, 20, 23, and 27; factor loadings from .71 to .84; Eisenberger et al., 1986). Previous studies provide evidence for the high internal reliability and unidimensionality of the Survey of Perceived Organizational Support (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Shore & Tetrick, 1991; Shore & Wayne, 1993; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006). This 6-item measure was also

adopted in the prior study by Shanock and Eisenberger (2006). Sample items read “The organization strongly considers my goals and values” and “The organization takes pride in my accomplishments at work.”

Control Variables. Five demographic variables including employee age, gender, education level, and industry were controlled in the data analyses. Prior research has found such demographic variables can influence individual proactive behavior (Bindl & Parker, 2010). Age was measured in years. Gender was measured as a dichotomous variable, coded as 0 for male and 1 for female. Education level was measured as a continuous variable coded as 1 for high school graduates, 2 for two-year technical college graduates, 3 for those who have undergraduate degrees, and 4 for the ones who have master’s degrees or higher. Finally, types of industry were measured as a dichotomous variable, coded as 0 for manufacturing industry and 1 for service industry.

3. Analytic Process

Multiple regression analyses with additional analytical methods were conducted to test hypotheses. Firstly, to test the direct effect of abusive supervision on employee voice behavior, I used hierarchical multiple

regression method. In step 1, I first regressed the control variables in order to minimize the spurious effects. Demographic information of employees' age, gender, education, and industry type were controlled. In step 2, I entered abusive supervision to test its main effect on employee voice behavior (i.e., Hypothesis 1). Second, in order to test the direct effect of abusive supervision on psychological safety (i.e., Hypothesis 2) and organization-based self-esteem (i.e., Hypothesis 4), I also conducted multiple regression methods. The regression methods are the same as testing Hypothesis 1.

To test the mediation hypotheses (i.e., Hypothesis 3 and Hypothesis 5), I employed two analytical methods to conduct mediation analysis, following recommendations by Preacher and Hayes (2008). First of all, I employed Baron and Kenny's (1986) four-step procedure. Additionally, I tested the indirect effect of abusive supervision on voice behavior via both psychological safety and organization-based self-esteem by using the bootstrapping procedure (across 1,000 samples) in SPSS macro developed by Preacher and Hayes (2004). This SPSS macro facilitates an estimation of indirect effect with a bootstrap approach by providing confidence intervals.

Moderation effects of organizational support on psychological safety (i.e., Hypothesis 6a) and organization-based self-esteem (i.e., Hypothesis

6b) were evaluated with moderated regression analysis. Hierarchical regression is the most common method to test moderation models (Leung & Zhou, 2008). Before performing regression analysis, independent and moderating variables (i.e., abusive supervision, psychological contract fulfillment, and self-enhancement motive) were mean-centered in order to prevent potential multicollinearity problems (Aiken & West, 1991). For the regression, I entered covariates in step 1, abusive supervision in step 2, and organizational support in step 3. Lastly, in step 4, I entered the interaction term, which is the multiplication of mean-centered abusive supervision and organizational support. To support moderation hypotheses, it requires statistically significant increasing values in the variance explained (R^2) with the addition of the interaction terms and the predicted patterns of consistent with our hypotheses.

V. RESULTS

1. Validity and Reliability Analyses

To assess whether the measure of voice behavior is separated into different categories, the study conducted an exploratory factor analysis (EFA). The analysis was conducted using principal components to test the validity of the voice measure. Items were rotated by varimax rotation. Table 4 shows the result of factor analysis for the voice behavior measurement. All six items were loaded on one factor, accounting for 74.83% of the total variance. Therefore, all items were included in hypotheses testing. Reliabilities of variables were measured by Cronbach's α .

Table 4. Factor Analysis of the Items Measuring Voice Behavior

Items	Factor loading	α
	1	
1. This employee develops and makes recommendations concerning issues that affect this work group	.86	.93
2. This employee speaks up and encourages others in this group to get involved in issues that affect the group	.90	
3. This employee communicates his/her opinions about work issues to others in this group even if his/her opinion is different and others in the group disagree with him/her	.88	
4. This employee keeps well informed about issues where his/her opinion might be useful to this work group	.87	
5. This employee gets involved in issues that affect the quality of work life here in this group	.82	
6. This employee speaks up in this group with ideas for new projects or changes in procedures	.86	
Eigen Value	4.49	
Pct of VAR (%)	74.83	
Cum of VAR (%)	74.83	

2. Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to ensure construct validity among variables. The values of chi-square (χ^2), comparative fit index (CFI), and the root mean square of approximation (RMSEA) were reported to assess the model fit. According to Medsker, Williams, and Holahan (1994), the value for CFI should be greater than or equal to .90 in order to be regarded as of a good fit. Moreover, Browne and Cudeck (1989) state that less than or equal to .08 of RMSEA values indicate a good fit of a model.

As shown in Table 5, there are five variables included in the research model (i.e., abusive supervision, psychological safety, organization-based self-esteem, organizational support, voice behavior). When the hypothesized model is compared with a series of competing models, it was found out that the five-factor model was significantly superior to other models. The fit indices for the hypothesized model were as follows: $\chi^2 = 2352.438$, CFI = .813, TLI = .802, and RMSEA = .06.

Table 5. Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Model	Description	χ^2	DF	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δ DF
Hypothesized Model	Five-factor model ^a	2352.438	892	.813	.802	.089		
Model 1	Four-factor model ^b	2562.067	896	.787	.775	.095	209.629	4.00
Model 2	Three-factor model ^c	4251.732	899	.571	.549	.134	1689.665	3.00
Model 3	Two-factor model ^d	4920.001	901	.486	.460	.146	668.269	2.00
Model 4	One-factor model ^e	5819.071	902	.371	.340	.162	899.070	1.00

Note. CFI = Comparative Fit Index; TLI = Tucker Lewis Index; RMSEA = Root-Mean-Square Error of Approximation; *** $p < .001$.

^a Five factors: Abusive supervision; Psychological safety; Organization-based self-esteem; Organizational support; Voice behavior.

^b Four factors: Abusive supervision; Psychological safety and Organization-based self-esteem combined; Organizational support; Voice behavior.

^c Three factors: Abusive supervision and Organizational support combined; Psychological safety and Organization-based self-esteem combined; Voice behavior.

^d Two factors: Abusive supervision, Psychological safety, Organization-based self-esteem and Organizational support combined; Voice behavior.

^e One factor: Abusive supervision, Psychological safety, Organization-based self-esteem, Organizational support and Voice behavior combined.

3. Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

The descriptive statistics and correlations are provided in Table 6. All variables had high reliabilities, with Cronbach's alpha coefficients of .70 or higher. The correlations for most variables were in the expected direction. As shown in the table, abusive supervision was significantly and negatively correlated not only with employee voice behavior but also with subordinate's psychological safety and organization-based self-esteem. Additionally, both psychological safety and organization-based self-esteem were significantly correlated with voice behavior. Furthermore, organizational support, which is a moderating variable, was significantly negatively correlated with abusive supervision. Contrary to this, it was significantly positively correlated with psychological safety and organization-based self-esteem. However, organizational support was not significantly correlated with voice behavior.

Table 6. Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

	M	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Age ^a	35.39	7.04									
2. Gender ^a	.39	.49	-.22**								
3. Education ^a	3.13	.58	.03	-.05							
4. Industry ^a	.25	.43	.02	-.25***	-.04						
5. Abusive Supervision ^a	1.72	.87	.08	-.08	-.12	.05	(.96)				
6. Psychological Safety ^a	4.61	.75	-.15*	-.08	-.04	-.05	-.22**	(.70)			
7. OBSE ^a	4.52	.91	.13	-.08	.04	-.03	-.24**	.34***	(.94)		
8. Organizational Support ^a	4.53	.97	-.10	-.07	-.07	-.00	-.23**	.57***	.55***	(.90)	
9. Voice Behavior ^b	4.85	1.02	.25***	-.10	.03	.10	-.23**	.14*	.23**	.02	(.93)

Note. N = 209. Reliabilities are on the diagonal in parentheses. ^a Self-rated. ^b Supervisor-rated.

Age was measured in years. For gender, 0 = male, 1 = female. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$ (two-tailed).

4. Hypotheses Testing

4.1 Test of Direct Effects

Hypothesis 1 predicted that abusive supervision is negatively related to employee voice behavior. As shown in Table 7, the result of hierarchical regression analysis indicates that abusive supervision is significantly and negatively related to voice behavior. This supported Hypothesis 1 (Table 7, Model 4; $\beta = -.30, p < .001$). Hypothesis 2 supposed that abusive supervision is negatively related to employee psychological safety. As shown in Table 8, multiple regression results indicate that abusive supervision is significantly and negatively connected to psychological safety. This supported Hypothesis 2 (Table 8, Model 2; $\beta = -.19, p < .01$). Moreover, Hypothesis 4 predicted that abusive supervision is negatively related to employee organization-based self-esteem. In Table 8, the results of multiple regression illustrate that abusive supervision had a significant and negative effect on organization-based self-esteem. This supported Hypothesis 4 (Table 8, Model 6; $\beta = -.26, p < .001$).

4.2 Test of Mediation

Hypothesis 3 and Hypothesis 5 suggested that psychological safety and organization-based self-esteem each mediate the relationship between abusive supervision and voice behavior. I first followed Baron and Kenny's (1986) procedures to test the mediation effect. Firstly, for Hypothesis 3, four conditions for supporting the hypothesized mediation effect were met as shown in Table 7 and 8: 1) abusive supervision had a significant relationship with psychological safety (Table 8, Model 2; $\beta = -.19, p < .01$), 2) psychological safety was significantly related to voice behavior (Table 7, Model 2; $\beta = .26, p < .01$), 3) the effect of psychological safety on voice behavior remained significant after controlling abusive supervision (Table 7, Model 5; $\beta = .19, p < .05$), and 4) the significance of the effect of abusive supervision on voice behavior is decreased as psychological safety was included in the regression (Table 7, Model 5; $\beta = -.27, p < .01$). Therefore, the results support the mediation effect of Hypothesis 3.

Additionally, I conducted bootstrapping methods to estimate the indirect effect. As shown in Table 9, the indirect effect of abusive supervision on voice behavior via psychological safety was negative ($-.04$) and bootstrapped 95% CI around the indirect effect did not include zero ($-.09, -.01$). Hence, both Baron and Kenny's procedure

and bootstrapping methods supported Hypothesis 3.

Secondly, for the next mediation hypothesis, Hypothesis 5, four conditions for supporting the hypothesized mediation effect were also met as shown in Table 7 and 8: 1) abusive supervision had a significant relationship with organization-based self-esteem (Table 8, Model 6; $\beta = -.26, p < .001$), 2) organization-based self-esteem was significantly related to voice behavior (Table 7, Model 3; $\beta = .23, p < .01$), 3) the effect of organization-based self-esteem on voice behavior remained significant after controlling abusive supervision (Table 7, Model 6; $\beta = .16, p < .05$), and 4) the significance of the effect of abusive supervision on voice behavior is decreased as organization-based self-esteem was included in the regression (Table 7, Model 6; $\beta = -.26, p < .01$). Accordingly, the results support the mediation effect of Hypothesis 5.

In addition, I also conducted bootstrapping methods to estimate the indirect effect. As shown in Table 10, the indirect effect of abusive supervision on voice behavior via organization-based self-esteem was negative ($-.04$) and bootstrapped 95% CI around the indirect effect did not include zero ($-.09, -.01$). Thus, both Baron and Kenny's procedure and bootstrapping methods all supported Hypothesis 5.

4.3 Test of Moderation

Hypothesis 6a and 6b proposed that organizational support moderates two negative relationships – one between abusive supervision and psychological safety, and another one between abusive supervision and organization-based self-esteem. Before conducting regression analyses, all variables were mean-centered to preclude potential multicollinearity problems (Aiken & West, 1991). Table 8 shows the regression analysis result for testing the effect of abusive supervision and its interaction with organizational support. The interaction term of abusive supervision and organizational support on psychological safety was significant (Table 8, Model 4; $\beta = -.13, p < .05$).

The graph was plotted with the results using Aiken and West's (1991) procedure of ± 1 standard deviation. As shown in Figure 2, the negative relationship between abusive supervision and psychological safety was more negative in a higher level when organizational support is high. As a result, although the interaction term of abusive supervision and organizational support on psychological safety was significant, Hypothesis 6a was not supported since the plot was different from what I expected. The simple slope test was also conducted, and it showed that the negative relationship between abusive supervision and psychological safety is significant only when organizational support is high ($b =$

$-.24, t = -3.26, p = .001$). When organizational support is low, the negative relationship between abusive supervision and psychological safety is not significant, maintaining low psychological safety level ($b = .02, t = .42, p = .672$).

The interaction term of abusive supervision and organizational support on organization-based self-esteem was not significant (Table 8, Model 8; $\beta = .09, n. s.$), not supporting Hypothesis 6b.

Table 7. Hierarchical Regression Results for Mediation

	Voice Behavior ^b					
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
<u>Step 1. Control Variables</u>						
Age	.04**	.04***	.03**	.04***	.04***	.04***
Gender	-.05	.01	-.02	-.08	-.04	-.06
Education	.04	.06	.04	-.01	.00	-.01
Industry	.20	.24	.23	.22	.24	.23
<u>Step 2. Main Effect</u>						
Abusive Supervision ^a				-.30***	-.27**	-.26**
<u>Step 3. Mediator</u>						
Psychological Safety ^a		.26**			.19*	
OBSE ^a			.23**			.16*
Overall <i>F</i>	3.94**	4.81***	5.09***	6.43***	6.13***	6.24***
<i>R</i> ²	.07	.11	.11	.14	.15	.16
ΔF		7.77**	9.05**	15.25***	4.14*	4.68*
ΔR^2		.03	.04	.07	.02	.02

Note. N = 209. ^a Self-rated. ^b Supervisor-rated. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$ (two-tailed).

Table 8. Moderated Multiple Regression Results

	Psychological Safety ^a				OBSE ^a			
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6	Model 7	Model 8
<u>Step 1. Control Variables</u>								
Age	-.02*	-.02*	-.01	-.01	.02	.02	.03**	.03**
Gender	-.22	-.24*	-.13	-.14	-.12	-.15	-.03	-.02
Education	-.05	-.09	-.02	-.03	.04	-.01	.08	.09
Industry	-.14	-.13	-.11	-.11	-.10	-.09	-.06	-.07
<u>Step 2. Main Effect</u>								
Abusive Supervision ^a		-.19**	-.08	-.11*		-.26***	-.12	-.10
<u>Step 3. Moderator</u>								
Organizational Support ^a			.41***	.39***			.52***	.53***
<u>Step 4. Interaction Effects</u>								
Abusive Supervision *				-.13*				.09
Organizational Support								
Overall <i>F</i>	2.25	4.00**	17.70***	16.02***	1.21	3.73**	18.46***	16.09***
<i>R</i> ²	.04	.09	.35	.36	.02	.08	.35	.36
ΔF		10.55**	78.59***	4.22*		13.53***	84.40***	1.60
ΔR^2		.05	.26	.01		.06	.27	.01

Note. N = 209. ^a Self-rated. ^b Supervisor-rated. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$ (two-tailed).

Table 9. Results of Bootstrap for Indirect Effect through Psychological Safety

Dependent Variable	Bias-Corrected Confidence Intervals			
	Indirect Effect	SE (boot)	Lower CI	Upper CI
Voice Behavior	-.036	.021	-.092	-.006

Note. N = 209.

Confidence interval does not include zero; thus, indirect effect is indeed significantly different from zero at $p < .05$ (two-tailed);

Control variables: Employee's age, gender, education level, industry type;

Number of samples used for indirect effect confidence intervals: 1000;

Table 10. Results of Bootstrap for Indirect Effect through Organization-Based Self-Esteem

Dependent Variable	Bias-Corrected Confidence Intervals			
	Indirect Effect	SE (boot)	Lower CI	Upper CI
Voice Behavior	-.043	.021	-.094	-.010

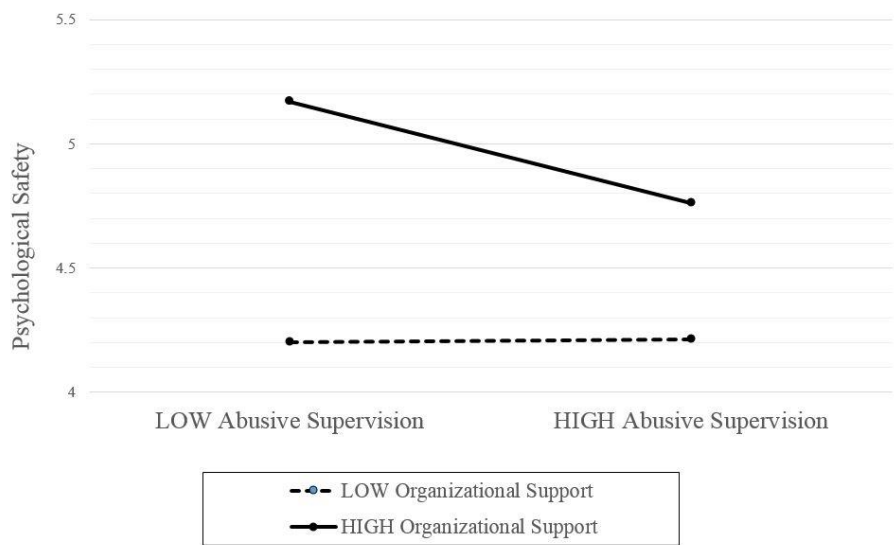
Note. N = 209.

Confidence interval does not include zero; thus, indirect effect is indeed significantly different from zero at $p < .05$ (two-tailed);

Control variables: Employee's age, gender, education level, industry type;

Number of samples used for indirect effect confidence intervals: 1000;

Figure 2. Interaction Effect of Abusive Supervision and Organizational Support on Psychological Safety (Hypothesis 6a)



VI. DISCUSSION

1. Summary of the Major Findings

The purpose of this study was to fill the gap in contemporary literatures of voice behavior and abusive supervision by investigating its main effect, mechanisms, and moderating effects. Extending from earlier studies, the current research broadened the focus of research by exploring two significant psychological factors as mediators. This paper suggests that the negative relationship between abusive supervision and employee voice behavior is mediated by individuals' perceptions of safety and self-esteem. The study was conducted a survey data collected from listed companies and research centers located in South Korea. As Table11 presents, the main effects of abusive supervision on voice behavior (H1), psychological safety (H2), and organization-based self-esteem (H4) were all supported. Moreover, the mediating effects of both psychological safety (H3) and organization-based self-esteem (H5) were also supported.

Table 11. Summary of the Results

No.	Hypothesis	Result
Hypothesis 1	Abusive supervision is negatively related to employee voice behavior.	Supported
Hypothesis 2	Abusive supervision is negatively related to psychological safety.	Supported
Hypothesis 3	Psychological safety mediates the relationship between abusive supervision and employee voice behavior.	Supported
Hypothesis 4	Abusive supervision is negatively related to organization-based self-esteem.	Supported
Hypothesis 5	Organization-based self-esteem mediates the relationship between abusive supervision and employee voice behavior.	Supported
Hypothesis 6a	Organizational support moderates the relationship between abusive supervision and psychological safety. When organizational support is high, the negative relationship between abusive supervision and psychological safety is likely to be attenuated.	Not supported
Hypothesis 6b	Organizational support moderates the relationship between abusive supervision and organization-based self-esteem. When organizational support is high, the negative relationship between abusive supervision and organization-based self-esteem is likely to be attenuated.	Not supported

2. Theoretical Contribution

This study makes a supplement to the theoretical discussion providing several major implications. First of all, the investigation contributes to the existing voice behavior literature by investigating a leader factor as a key predictor of voice behavior. While there is a growing interest in the relationship of managerial behaviors and employee voice (e.g., Detert & Burris, 2007; Liu et al., 2010), only a few empirical papers to date have examined the effect of negative leader behaviors on employee voice behavior (i.e., Burris et al., 2008; Frazier & Bowler, 2015). Recently, organizational studies have emphasized that the frequency of destructive supervisory behaviors is continuously increasing (e.g., Hershcovis, 2011). Applying social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989), the present research not only showed the direct main effect of abusive supervision on employee voice, but also explored two mediating variables which specifies the mechanisms of the relationship between abusive supervision and voice behavior. In consonance with previous findings (e.g., Burris et al., 2008), the results in this study also provided that abusive supervision is negatively related to employee voice. Furthermore, employees' psychological factors, such as psychological safety and organization-based self-esteem, were presented as important

mediators to predict employee voice behavior when leaders are offensive towards employees.

Second, this research further extends and complements deeper understanding of the application of abusive supervision theory directly and indirectly to the voice behavior domain. Although leaders' demanding and abusive behaviors were considered as an important factor that may impact employee behaviors (i.e., task performance, organizational citizenship behavior, creativity) in most previous studies (e.g., Tepper, 2000; Duffy et al., 2002; Zellars et al., 2002; Lee & Yun, 2013; Harris et al., 2007), little is known about the relationship between abusive supervision and voice behavior. Applying theoretical perspectives, this paper found psychological mechanisms through which abusive supervision produces negative outcomes on employee voice behavior, proposing abusive supervision as a strong external cue.

Third, the study contributes direct insight into the mediating effect of both psychological safety and organization-based self-esteem of the abusive supervision–voice behavior relationship. The indirect effects of both psychology safety and organization-based self-esteem partially explained the total magnitude of this relationship. As expected, a high level of abusive supervision can indirectly affect voice behavior through reducing both psychological safety and organization-based self-esteem.

This could imply that psychological safety and organization-based self-esteem as two significant proximal variables of the relationship between abusive supervision and voice behavior. Specifically, the mediating roles of both psychological safety and organization-based self-esteem further highlight that abused members refuse to speak up to protect the limited resources they have left. Therefore, this investigation not only addresses the leadership influence on employees' decision to speak up, but also uncovers the underlying mechanisms.

This research does not support a moderating effect of organizational support both on psychological safety and on organization-based self-esteem. First, for the moderating effect on psychological support, the statistical result was significant, but contrary to the hypothesis, the negative relationship between abusive supervision and psychological safety was strengthened when organizational support is high compared to when it is low. I offer two different perspectives to interpret this finding.

The first interpretation is the reverse buffering effect, which indicates that when perceived organizational support is high, the negative relationship between abusive supervision and psychological safety becomes stronger. That is, high perceived organizational support exacerbates the level of psychological safety induced by abusive

supervision. According to previous studies, the reverse buffering effect is not uncommon in studies of organization (Glaser, Tatum, Nebeker, Sorenson, & Aiello, 1999; Sullivan & Bhagat, 1992; Wu & Hu, 2009). One of the reasons that may lead to this reverse buffering effect is that the support from organization may recall employees of negative aspects of workplaces, and this indication may aggravate the irritation (LaRocco, House, & French, 1980). For instance, when an employee experiences a high level of abusive supervision, organizational support may only remind them of negative feelings toward abusive supervision rather than buffering its negative effect. Recent research also found this reverse buffering effect from coworker support such that negative relationship between abusive supervision and emotional exhaustion was strengthened when a higher level of coworker support (Wu & Hu, 2009). The result of this current paper also indicates that the impact of leader influence is so great that organizational support cannot sufficiently mitigate the negative effect of abusive supervision.

The second interpretation can be explained by the conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989). According to the theory, people seek to obtain, retain, and protect their resources. More specifically, Hobfoll and Shirom (2000) have indicated that individuals experience and behave as follows. First, individuals must bring in resources in order to

prevent the loss of resources. Second, individuals with a greater pool of resources are less susceptible to resource loss. Third, those individuals who do not have access to strong resource pools are more likely to experience increased loss (“loss spiral”). Fourth, strong resource pools lead to a greater likelihood that individuals will seek opportunities to risk resources for increased resource gains (“gain spiral”). In this sense, those employees who experienced a high level of abusive supervision would have less amount of resources, and therefore, they would be more vulnerable to increased loss of resources. In this case, organizational support may cause more resource loss and reduce the positive effect of organizational support. On the other hand, if abusive supervision is low, employees would have a greater pool of resources, and therefore, they would be less susceptible to resource loss. Hence, organizational support would be efficient in mitigating the negative effect of abusive supervision only when the level of abusive supervision is low.

Additionally, the research does not support a moderating effect of organizational support on organization-based self-esteem. There are also plausible reasons for this. First of all, the effect of organizational support might be weaker than that of the effect of a supervisor. Given the critical role of the supervisor, organizational support might not be sufficiently influential to decrease the negative effects of abusive supervision (Ng &

Sorensen, 2008). Additionally, the findings can be interpreted in a cultural context. South Korea has a high power distance culture compared to the Western countries, where power distance is low (Hofstede, 1980). In this context, the ability of organizational support to mitigate the effects of hostile behaviors of supervisors on one's self-esteem may be much weaker. Future research may need to examine this cultural issue and buffering variables further in different research settings.

3. Managerial Implication

This research also provides practical insights both for the management practitioner and for the organization. Although a number of companies have taken different approaches to inspire employees to step up and to voice through such as an open door policy and anonymous mail box, these methods did not carry out impressive results (Hsiung, 2012). The current research uncovers that destructive leader behaviors can debilitate employees from expressing their opinions. As with other studies exploring the consequences of abusive supervision, this study also demonstrate these destructive and hostile behaviors towards employees have inimical impacts on employees. Recognizing the negative consequences of abusive supervision, organizations should be

aware of the importance of the unfavorable influence of supervisors on employee outcomes, which can discourage employees not only from building high psychological safety and organization-based self-esteem but also from speaking out in the workplace. However, abusive supervision is not easily detected nor properly managed (Tepper et al., 2007). Therefore, identifying factors that contribute to abusive leader behaviors is necessary. Organizations should closely monitor occurrences of abusive supervision for understanding the main causes. Additionally, establishing organizational culture which rewards upright leaders and punishes immoral behaviors is highly recommended. Leadership training programs could be helpful to prevent such abusive behaviors. According to the findings, psychological factors of employees, such as psychological safety and organization-based self-esteem, are essential factors to employee voice. Thus, encouraging and motivating employees with fair and safe environment in the organization would be vital. Moreover, providing them with positive feedback about their potential abilities would also help them develop organizational-based self-esteem.

4. Limitations and Conclusion

The present study is also subject to limitations. First, a cross-sectional design, which cannot infer causality, was used in this research. The implementation of a longitudinal research or the experimental design could strengthen these findings. Second, there is a potential risk of common method bias. I tried to minimize this issue by collecting data from two different sources – the employees and their supervisors. For example, I applied the supervisors' data on employee voice behavior to increase the objectivity of data. Additionally, according to Evans (1985), common method bias is less likely to be a concern for this particular study since our study provides significant interaction effects. Nevertheless, future research may need to take a more careful approach to avoid this potential issue. Finally, this study covered only a limited number of variables since I aimed to conduct a focused study. Hence, it might be worthwhile to entail other organizational, contextual, and individual factors in future research other than psychological safety, organization-based self-esteem, and organizational support to figure out more mediating and moderating effects.

Despite some limitations, this research enriches the understanding of voice behavior by examining abusive supervision as a predictor, and psychological safety and organization-based self-esteem as mediating

mechanisms of the abusive supervision–voice behavior relationship. Furthermore, the current study also provides empirical evidence by identifying an important contextual moderator of the effects of abuse. Recognizing the importance of voice behavior in our society, the current research provides insights when employees speak up about their opinions in the organization.

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SURVEY ITEMS (English)

<Employee Rating>

Abusive Supervision

1. My leader ridicules me
2. My leader tells me any thoughts or feelings are stupid
3. My leader gives me the silent treatment
4. My leader puts me down in front of others
5. My leader invades my privacy
6. My leader reminds me of my past mistakes and failures
7. My leader doesn't give me credit for jobs requiring a lot of effort
8. My leader blames me to save himself/herself embarrassment
9. My leader breaks promises he/she makes
10. My leader expresses anger at me when he/she is mad for another reason
11. My leader makes negative comments about me to others
12. My leader is rude to me
13. My leader does not allow me to interact with my coworkers
14. My leader tells me I'm incompetent
15. My leader lies to me

Psychological Safety

1. If you make a mistake on this team, it is often held against you ®
2. Members of this team are able to bring up problems and tough issues
3. People on this team sometimes reject others for being different ®
4. It is safe to take a risk on this team
5. It is difficult to ask other members of this team for help ®
6. No one on this team would deliberately act in a way that undermines my efforts
7. Working with members of this team, my unique skills and talents are valued and utilized

Organization-Based Self-Esteem

1. I count around here
2. I am taken seriously around here
3. I am important around here
4. I am trusted around here
5. There is faith in me around here
6. I can make a difference around here
7. I am valuable around here
8. I am helpful around here
9. I am efficient around here
10. I am cooperative around here

Organizational Support

1. The organization values my contribution to its well-being
2. The organization strongly considers my goals and values
3. The organization really cares about my well-being
4. The organization is willing to help me when I need a special favor
5. The organization shows very little concern for me ®
6. The organization takes pride in my accomplishments at work

<Leader Rating>

Voice Behavior

1. This employee develops and makes recommendations concerning issues that affect this work group
2. This employee speaks up and encourages others in this group to get involved in issues that affect the group
3. This employee communicates his/her opinions about work issues to others in this group even if his/her opinion is different and others in the group disagree with him/her
4. This employee keeps well informed about issues where his/her opinion might be useful to this work group
5. This employee gets involved in issues that affect the quality of work life here in this group
6. This employee speaks up in this group with ideas for new projects or changes in procedures

SURVEY ITEMS (Korean Translation)

<구성원용>

리더의 비인격적 행동

1. 나의 상사는 나를 조롱한다
2. 나의 상사는 나의 생각이나 감정들이 한심하다고 말한다
3. 나의 상사는 나의 요구를 묵살한다
4. 나의 상사는 타인 앞에서 나를 무시한다
5. 나의 상사는 나의 사생활을 침해한다
6. 나의 상사는 나의 과거 실패나 실수들을 상기시킨다
7. 나의 상사는 내가 노력을 기울이고 열심히 한 것에 대해 인정해 주지 않는다
8. 나의 상사는 자신의 난처함을 감추기 위해 나를 비난한다
9. 나의 상사는 자신이 한 약속을 지키지 않는다
10. 나의 상사는 다른 이유로 화가 나 있는데도 그것을 나에게 킁다
11. 나의 상사는 타인에게 나에 대한 부정적인 말을 한다
12. 나의 상사는 나를 무례하게 대한다
13. 나의 상사는 내가 동료들과 어울리지 못하도록 방해한다
14. 나의 상사는 내가 무능력하다고 말한다
15. 나의 상사는 나에게 거짓말을 한다

심리적 안정감

1. 내가 만약 조직 내에서 실수를 저지르면, 그것은 종종 나에게 불리하게 작용한다 ㉠
2. 조직 구성원들은 다루기 어렵거나 결끄러운 문제들을 제기할 수 있다
3. 조직 구성원들은 서로가 다르다는 이유로 상대방을 배척한다 ㉠
4. 나는 조직 내에서 위험을 감수할 수 있다
5. 조직 구성원들에게 도움을 요청하는 것이 어렵게 느껴진다 ㉠
6. 우리 조직 구성원들은 내 노력을 고의적으로 깎아 내리려는 행동을 하지 않는다
7. 우리 조직 내에서 나는 나의 기술과 재능이 가치 있게 여겨지고 충분히 활용된다

조직기반 자아존중감

1. 나는 이 회사에서 인정받는 사람이다
2. 나는 이 회사에서 영향력 있는 사람이다
3. 나는 이 회사에서 중요한 역할을 한다
4. 나는 이 회사에서 신임을 받고 있다
5. 나는 이 회사에서 신뢰받는다
6. 나는 이 회사에서 변화를 이끌어 낼 수 있다
7. 나는 이 회사에서 가치가 있는 사람이다
8. 나는 이 회사에 도움이 되는 사람이다

9. 나는 이 회사에서 유능한 사람이다
10. 나는 이 회사에서 협조적인 사람이다

조직지원인식

1. 우리 조직은 조직에 대한 나의 공헌을 가치 있게 생각한다
2. 우리 조직은 나의 목표와 가치를 매우 존중한다
3. 우리 조직은 나의 복지를 진심으로 배려해 준다
4. 우리 조직은 내가 특별한 도움이 필요할 때 기꺼이 도와 주려 한다
5. 우리 조직은 나에게 별로 관심을 보이지 않는다 ®
6. 우리 조직은 나의 업적을 자랑스럽게 여긴다

<상사용>

제언행동

1. 이 직원은 업무에 영향을 줄만한 문제들에 대한 방안을 모색하고 제시한다
2. 이 직원은 업무에 영향을 주는 문제들에 대해 말하거나 다른 사람들도 이러한 이슈들에 관여하도록 격려한다
3. 이 직원은 설령 자신의 의견이 다른 사람들과 다르고 그들이 동의하지 않더라도, 직무와 관련된 문제들에 대해 다른 사람들에게 의견을 개진한다

4. 이 직원은 그의 의견이 도움이 될 가능성이 있는 이슈들에 대해 잘 알고 있다
5. 이 직원은 직장 생활의 질에 영향을 끼칠 수 있는 문제들에 대해 관여한다
6. 이 직원은 새로운 프로젝트나 절차상 변화를 위해 본인의 아이디어를 제시한다

국문초록

상사의 비인격적 행동이 구성원의 제언행동에 미치는 영향

서울대학교 대학원

경영학과 경영학전공

최 우 희

급변하는 경쟁 사회에서 조직은 효율과 효과성을 위해 구성원들에게 보다 높은 문제 해결 능력을 요구한다. 하지만 조직에서는 경영진들이 찾아낼 수 없는 문제점들이 있으며, 오히려 구성원들이 더 잘 알고 있는 사건들도 자주 발생한다. 따라서 조직은 구성원들이 주도적으로 행동하고 또 그러한 문제들에 대해 적극적으로 제의하기를 기대하고 있다. 이렇게 구성원의 제언행동에 대한 관심이 증가하고 중요성이 높아지고 있는 만큼, 본 논문은 조직 내에서 상사의 행동이 구성원의 제언행동에 미치는 영향을 검증하는 것을 목적

으로 한다. 특히 상사의 행동 중에서도 부정적인 행동 - 상사의 비인격적 행동 - 이 구성원의 제언행동에 영향을 어떻게 미치며, 이 관계를 매개 및 조절하는 요인이 무엇인지를 밝히는 것을 본 연구의 취지로 한다.

구체적으로 본 연구의 목적은 다음과 같다. 첫째, 본 연구는 구성원의 제언행동을 예측하는 데에 있어서 상사의 비인격적 행동이 어떤 영향을 어떻게 미치는가에 대해 실증하고자 한다. 둘째, 본 연구에서는 상사의 비인격적 행동과 구성원의 제언행동 간의 관계에서 구성원의 심리적 메커니즘을 검증하고자 한다. 선행연구에 따르면 구성원이 능동적으로 제언행동을 하기 위해서는 두 가지 필수요건이 있는데, 본 연구에서의 매개 메커니즘으로 이 두 가지 요건인 1) 심리적 안정감과 할 수 있다는 생각을 갖게 하는 2) 조직기반자극심을 채택하여 그 영향을 검토한다. 셋째, 상사의 비인격적 행동과 매개변수들 간의 관계에 영향을 미칠 수 있는 상황요인으로 조직지원인식을 보았고, 그 조절효과를 검증하고자 한다. 따라서 본 연구는 상사의 비인격적 행동과 구성원의 제언행동 간의 관계에서 매개변수와 조절변수를 검증하여 통합적인 모델을 제시하고 검토하고자 한다.

본 연구는 가설을 검증하기 위해 국내의 다양한 기업과 연구기관들을 대상으로 설문조사를 실시하였다. 설문은 구성원 및 그들의 직속상사로 구성된 쌍에게 배포되었으며, 최종적으로 209개의

상사-구성원 쌍의 자료가 실증적 분석 및 검증에 사용되었다. 회귀 분석을 활용하여 분석한 결과, 예측한 바와 같이 상사의 비인격적 행동은 구성원의 제언행동과 부적인 관계를 가지는 것으로 나타났다. 또 상사의 비인격적 행동은 구성원의 심리적 안정감과 조직기반 자긍심과도 부정적인 관계를 갖는 것으로 나타났다. 나아가 매개 메커니즘에 대한 분석 결과로는, 상사의 비인격적 행동과 구성원의 제언행동 간의 부적 관계를 구성원의 심리적 안정감과 조직기반자긍심이 각각의 매개효과가 유의하였다. 마지막으로 상황변수로 설정한 조직지원인식의 조절효과는 기대한 바와 달리 지지되지 않았다. 구체적으로, 상사의 비인격적 행동과 구성원의 심리적 안정감 간의 부적 관계에서 조직지원인식의 조절효과가 통계적으로 유의미하기는 했으나, 예상했던 방향과는 달리 조직의 지원이 높을 때 부적 관계가 강화되는 것으로 나타났고, 상사의 비인격적 행동이 낮은 상황에서 조직의 지원이 있을 때 구성원의 제언행동을 높이는 기능을 한다는 것을 밝혔다.

결론적으로, 본 연구는 구성원의 제언행동에 미치는 리더의 부정적인 영향을 구성원의 심리적 메커니즘을 통해 종합적으로 실증함으로써 이들 연구분야에 이론적으로 기여한다. 나아가, 실무적으로도 조직에 지침과 시사점을 제공한다.

주요어: 제언행동, 상사의 비인격적 행동, 심리적 안정감, 조직기반
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